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The Cadet Review

OF THE

Maryland Agricultural College.

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OF THE

MARYLAND AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

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The Agricultural Department of the College.

IN THE recent improvements which have taken place in the Maryland Agricultural College, the Agricultural department has kept even pace with the rest. The expressed determination of the present management is to make the institution an agricultural college in fact as well as in name, and with this end in view, everything possible is being done to advance the work of this department.

A long step forward was made when the college curriculum was divided and four courses of study established, one of which, the "agricultural," is designed to furnish a liberal general education and special technical instruction in agriculture.

Not only is it impossible in the single course system to give to agriculture the attention which so comprehensive a subject demands, but many students who have neither the intention nor inclination to become farmers, become restive under such procrustean treatment. They take no pleasure in what they think will be of no ultimate benefit to them, and their influence reacts upon others who would otherwise and naturally find the subject interesting and instructive and pursue it with avidity.

As the division of the curriculum does not apply to students who matriculated previous to the session of 1892-93, the present Senior and Junior classes are not affected by it. Of the two lower classes a very fair percentage, four Sophomores and eight Freshmen are now taking the agricultural course, two others who started in it having been compelled for various reasons to drop it. As these students have voluntarily selected the study of agriculture, with reference to their future occupations, they materially take up the subject *conamore* and in both its theoretical and practical phases manifest a deep interest and a strong desire for information. To further stimulate endeavor, two medals are offered in the course, one, by the President of the College, for the best essay on some agricultural topic; the other by the Prof. of Agriculture, for the greatest skill with the plow.

The agricultural course is, for the most part, the same as the Scientific. Its strictly agricultural features may be outlined as

follows: During the winter attention is chiefly directed to the theoretical and purely scientific phases of the subject, and for this purpose there is a fairly well equipped laboratory to which other equipment will be added from time to time as required. In the fall and spring when active farming operations are in progress, the work is chiefly in the fields, inspecting closely the methods of preparation for, the planting, cultivation and harvesting of crops.

While no student is required to do manual labor his attention is in every way directed to the details of farm work.

The construction of farm machinery and its use; the character, quantity and anticipated results of fertilizers used; the difference in soils and in the habits of growth of plants and the consequent differences in cultivation; the effect of drainage and other means to control the quantity and movement of soil water; the grafting, trimming and propagation of trees and vines; plant fertilization; insect and fungous injuries and the remedies therefor—these and other kindred and equally important points of farming are elaborated in lectures and illustrated in actual practice.

For this practical work the Maryland Agricultural College possesses advantages which are in many respects exceptional. Its farm is of sufficient size and of sufficient variety of soil as to admit of the successful cultivation of crops, ordinarily separated long distances. A part of this soil is stiff, clay loam, a part is sandy loam. That the former is well adapted to crops requiring a heavy soil is shown by the yield of wheat made last year on similar, but more improved soil at the Agricultural Experiment Station. In the variety tests there, several varieties of wheat made more than forty bushels to the acre, and with an outlay for fertilizer much less than is often used on what are considered excellent wheat lands.

On the sandy loam trucks and small fruit find a congenial soil in which to attain perfection. An unmeasured but very small piece of this land on the college farm, produced last year seventy-five barrels of unusually fine sweet potatoes.

This diversity of soils is being utilized by growing a great variety of crops, both of those usually known as standard farm crops and of small fruits and trucks. In this way a varied diet is furnished at minimum cost for the college table and a wide range of experience afforded the students of agriculture.

As the college owns a fine herd of dairy cattle of approved breeds and a number of registered swine, practical work in animal husbandry occupies an important place in the course.

The proximity of the Agricultural Experiment Station, with its corps of skilled workers in agricultural lines is another advantage which cannot easily be overestimated. The Station farm adjoins the College, and though the two institutions are under separate management, yet the college students are always welcomed by the courteous station officials, who are ever ready to furnish them with any desired information concerning the experimental work.

W. T. L. TALIAFERRO.

Student Government in Colleges.

F. B. BOMBERGER.

THE present position of the student in regard to the government of the College and the promotion of its prosperity is not one which he has always held nor has it been suddenly attained. The process by which the student has come to be an important factor in the advancement of the College has been a gradual movement.

In the early history of our colleges we find the student to be little more than the means by which the financial prosperity of the institution was assured. He took no active part in the government of the schools and must be content to obey the laws laid down by the college faculty; whether these laws be in accordance with his own idea

of justice or diametrically opposed to them, he must submit.

But there is, hidden away somewhere in the heart of every American youth, that irrepressible desire for self government, which will sooner or later assert itself. It is just as impossible to secure blind and implicit obedience to laws, in the making of which they have had no part, from Americans, as it would be to dry up the ocean with a mop. Great Britain discovered this, very much to her sorrow, when we wrestled with her for independence. This desire for self-government is one of the most prominent characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon race; it is the fundamental principle of our government; and its influence is felt upon each and every one of your institutions, whether political, social, or otherwise.

And it was this principle which, after a time, asserted itself in our colleges. Gradually the student began to make this influence felt, and demanded recognition in all matters relating to his welfare. Little by little he extended this influence; privilege after privilege he grasped and retained, until to-day, in many of our colleges, the student-body is, in a great measure, also the legislative body of the institutions.

Just here it will be necessary to make a slight digression to note the relation of the student to the advancement of the college. As an individual the student plays a very important part in the promotion of the prosperity of an institution of learning. There can be no doubt that the influence of the individual is strongly felt, and it remains for the individual himself to determine the nature of the influence exerted by him.

But just as in every other department of life, it is by union that the greatest proportionate results are secured, so, in order to promote in the greatest degree the prosperity of the college, the students must be moved by a common desire for the advancement of the interests of the institution, and all must work towards the accomplishment of the same result. Still there is such a thing as maintaining individuality even in union.

It were far worse for the student-body to follow blindly after a few self-appointed leaders, without the exercise of personal judgment or discretion, than if such a union did not exist at all. Such a condition of things would lead to evils probably greater than those which might arise under the old system of government.

Primarily, every student should have the good of the institution at heart. Then, in matters relating to its advancement, he should freely and fearlessly express his opinion. The government of a student-body so constituted would be a very simple matter, indeed.

But such a state of affairs is scarcely possible. There will always be, as there have always been, spirits of mischief in every body of students. It is in the government of these that problems arise which college presidents and faculties are striving to solve. I say, presidents and faculties; but there is also another very important power, of which I will now speak briefly, i. e., the student-body itself.

But to return to our subject. As I have shown above, the student by gradually exerting his influence upon the government of the college and steadily acquiring increased rights and privileges, has become an important factor in its prosperity. In a few of our leading colleges the student-body is the sole legislative power, with slight restrictions.

This, in my opinion, is the most favorable condition of things. When a student-body becomes self-regulating, it is safe to say that the institution is on the broad way to success.

In point of qualifications, I think the student-body beyond all doubt, is able to perform the self-appointed task. It is true, indeed, that an abrupt change from the present form of government might be followed by bad results: but when the period of transition is over, I think it is safe to pre-

dict, that the increased prosperity of our colleges will be the inevitable result.

Let us consider a few of the advantages to be derived from student self-government.

Under the old regime, the chief difficulty confronting the college faculty was to determine the identity of offenders against the college law. Most frequently he escaped without punishment owing to the inability of the faculty, unaided by the student-body, to place the blame upon the correct person. Very frequently, also, we have seen students punished for the misdeeds of others, or bearing the entire punishment for violation of the law in which they were far from being the principle actors; and, owing to a peculiar code of honor (?), which compels a student to suffer rather than betray the real offender, great injustice has frequently been done.

It seems to me, that by the new order of things, this would, in a great measure, be done away with. It is safe to state that, in almost every body of students, the majority is willing to abide by the laws of the institution, and anxious to promote its interests. Such a body, then, would be much better fitted to find out violators of the law than a faculty, in many cases, unacquainted with the wiles and artifices of school boys. And thus, at least, punishment for misdemeanors would be more certain.

But this I consider a very slight argument in favor of student self-government. Far greater would be the advantages derived from the development of a feeling of responsibility which the student would acquire. When the student-body attains to such a state that all its actions are calculated to forward the college along the line to prosperity, a great advance has been made.

That education is best which places us in such relation to the world, as will enable us to avoid its dangers and overcome its difficulties. Especially is this true in this country, where each individual exerts an influence upon the government. The student of a college, accustomed to study its requirements and to exert his influence to attain the same; to note the effect of certain laws and regulations, and to endeavor to establish those most necessary and equitable, is much better qualified to take his place in the world as a citizen of our great republic, than one who has passed through college entirely guided and directed by others, without an iota of responsibility resting upon him. Self-government is an admirable school for the development of self-confidence, foresight and moral courage.

Furthermore, I think self-government would tend to promote the union of the student-body and the faculty. At present, too frequently we find the faculty viewed by the student as a relentless task-master whose highest aim is to render his life unbearable, by placing upon him restrictions, in themselves salutary and necessary, but to the prejudiced mind of the student, iniquitous and tyrannical. But if, with a common aim in view, the advancement of the college, both faculty and student-body work together for the common good and the welfare of the institution, there must of necessity spring up, feelings as opposite to these as night to-day. The closer union of the faculty and student-body can be the only logical and inevitable result. The natural outgrowth of this harmonious co-operation of the faculty with the students will be the further advancement of the college towards success.

Finally, I think self-government tends to elevate the morals of an institution. The student-body, feeling that the welfare depends largely upon their own efforts, will naturally take more pride in its advancement, and will be more active in checking any breaches of discipline or violations of law calculated to lower the moral standard of the institution. In other words, it would serve to interest personally each and every student, in acquiring and maintaining a high standard of morals in the institution.

In conclusion, I will say that all of the above is not mere, hollow theory. A few of our colleges have tried the experiment of student self-government with a success

far greater than had been anticipated. There is a strong current moving slowly, but with resistless force, towards self-government; and ere long, I believe, the student alone will make the laws for his government, and insure their execution

And it is safe to predict, that when the American student is intrusted with so grave a charge, he will not betray the confidence reposed in him. On the contrary, I believe that the brightest era of our colleges is yet to come, promoted, in a great measure, by the self-government of the students.

The Political Situation.

F. B. BOMBERGER.

'TIS an old and time-worn saying that "great bodies move slowly;" but the truth of the maxim is more forcibly impressed upon the mind by its recent exemplification in the United States Congress.

During the present session of Congress as yet no very important legislation has been carried to completion. It can, however, be said that the House of Representatives has not been derelict in the performance of its duty. Especially is this true in regard to its prompt action upon the Tariff Bill. With indefatigable energy the Ways and Means Committee framed a tariff bill, which was with corresponding promptness passed by the House of Representatives.

The Bill came to the Senate carrying with it the demands, wishes, and prayers of the people for its speedy passage. The result is seen. The Wilson Bill is about as far from securing passage through the Senate, as it has ever been. In fact, the bill presents an altogether different appearance from the bill which passed the House, owing to the hacking of the Senate Sub-committee on Finance.

After passing the Senate, which it will surely do, if not in its present form, at least in some other, it must again be considered by the House of Rrepresentatives before receiving the signature of the President.

It is not necessary to ferret out the causes which have wrought this delay, the reasons leading up to it have already been discussed in the press, but we cannot fail to see that the only obstacle in the way of tariff legislation has been the Senate.

And, right here again the question is forced upon us, as to the utility of the Senate as a Department of our government. The question need not be discussed here. It is sufficient to call the attention to the significent demonstrations against the House, of Lords, in England, brought on by the same causes precisely as those which are fast rendering the Senate objectionable to the American people,—the total ignoring of public opinion and popular neccessity.

The Senate may indeed, be moved by considerations of equity and justice; but there is such a thing as promptness to execute the public wishes, which may well go hand in hand with the foregoing considerations. The country demands tariff legislation, immediate and effective. And the Senate might, with beneficial results, consider the present position of the Engiish House of Lords, before further defying public opinion.

The country has seen a humiliating spectacle in the rejection by the Senate, of the nominations made by the President to fill the vacancy on the supreme Bench.

The fact that these two men, Messrs. Hornblower and Peckham, both able and competent, thoroughly qualified to fill the position, have been repudiated on account of "Senatorial Courtesy" to the Senators from New York, whose only objections were based upon political enmity, presents this phenomenon of "Senatorial Courtesy" before the people in a startling light. It becomes simple, straight out "log-rolling" of the most pronounced type.

The third nominee, Mr. White, whose nomination was confirmed by the senate, is certainly an able man, but the principle underlying the foregoing transactions is what should bring the blush of shame to the cheek of every true American citizen.

The Hawaiian affair has, as was predicted in our last issue; quietly vanished from the political horizon. The committee of investigation, with Senator Harris as chairman, have submitted a report to the Senate, which seems to settle the question agreeably to all concerned. Through its investigations, the committee has reconciled, in a great part at least, the confiicting reports of the difierent officers in anyway connected with the affair.

Nobody seems to have over-stepped his authority, no breach of international law occurred, and the report tacitly suggested that the safest way out of the difficulty is to drop the matter without any further consideration,—which suggestion has been fairly well carried out. It is well to note, however, that a majority of the committee go on record as favoring annexation.

Literary Department.

B. M. Chiswell, '94.

Some Formative Periods in the History of the English Language.

1.—The Age of Chaucer.

LIVING, as we do, in the harvest-time of civilization, in an age of consummated political liberty, an age of inventive and scientific triumphs, of vigorous and widely spread literary development, of vast and far reaching commercial movements; and thoroughly acclimated, as we have become to the democratic idea of self-government, it is no easy task to free ourselves from this influence of nineteeth century environment, and to enterin to and sympathize with the social life in England five hundred years ago. And yet we reap today the fruit of seeds then sown. From the semi-barbarous legal system and the rude code of morality founded on brute force of the fourteenth century, has been evolved a civilization of the like of which our forefathers never dreamed, a civilization more enduring than that of Greece and Rome, because built upon rationalism rather than sentiment: higher than that of the Eastern empires, because intellectual rather than sensuous. And this intellectual, rationalistic civilization owes its inception and its active principles largely to the latter half of the fourteenth century.

The world has learned many lessons since that time-hard lesson; lesson taught by bitter experience; paid for with toil and pain and human blood. The gains have been immense, but they have been bought at a great and often at a terrible price. Freedom-intellectual and religious has won the victory, but won it on battle-fields, in prisons and at the martyr's stake.

No better example of this can be found than that afforded by the history of English Literature. Owing its first impetus to the bold and innovating spirit of Chaucer and his followers, and guided by master hands in every successive generation, it has come down to us through the long line of five hundred years, laden with the choicest treasures of the human mind. But it, too, has had its trials and reverses. It has fought a hard but winning fight against ignorance, bigotry and fanaticism, the three great enemies of human progress Its light at times seemed almost quenched, but never for long and each revival has been with greater strength and power, until to-day its mighty exponent, the press, has become the framer of public opinion, the patron of the arts and sciences, and the magic power behind the throne.

The age of Chaucer was in many respects a remarkable and a siguificant one. It was a period of threatening rather than of actual changes; a period that told of great possibilities, rather than one of great accomplishments. Truly a formative age. But let us glance at the condition of England, and the English during the life-time of Chaucer.

England has just begun to emerge from the darkness and narrowness of the Feudal System. The social conditions of the kingdom had long been held depressed by the uncongenial atmosphere of wide class distinctions and discriminating laws. Ignorance, more helpless, and social slavery, more blighting in its effects than that which marked the early days of the Roman Empire formed the environment within which national growth found its limitations. But all in Chaucer's time, and especially in the cities, the manner of life of the upper and middle classes had materially improved. The Feudal ideas were passing away. Upon the lower orders the effects of the system had been truly deplorable, but among those of higher rank the case had been different. The high value placed upon honor and courage, the strengthening of families ties, and the more elevated plane upon which woman was placed were but a few of its advantages. Still, having served its purpose as a social institution Feudalism was tak

ing its place among the things of the past, making room for the healthier and more perfect form of civilization which was to find its most vigorous growth in English soil.

Another of the prominent characteristics of the times in which Chaucer lived and wrote was the peculiar status of the religious houses. The monasteries, like the baronial castles, were generally situated upon some demesne or manor, and here the monks were wont to keep open house, offering to every chance traveller food and shelter for himself, his beasts, no matter how great might be his retinue or how abject his property. These monasteries were moreover places of refuge for those fleeing from private enemies or public justice.

Jolly good fellows they were, too, these monks, eating and drinking of the best of the land; often ignorant, seldom oppressed with too much care or too much conscience: as ready to engage in a private warfare or a border foray as any of their neighbors: doing much good in their own way; and acting the part of arbitrators between the lower classes and their lords.

Justice was simply administered on the great estates. Each lord held his own court, and tried and punished all offenders within the limits of his own manor. Trials by the ordeals of fire and water, the hot ploughshares and the horse-pond had nearly passed into disuse before Chaucer's day, but the trial by single combat was still in use in many parts of England; although as this finally degenerated into a sort of gladiatorial contest, it was superseded by the trial by jury.

The inns, of which Chaucer himself has much to say, were not unimportant factors in moulding public manners and tastes. Situated on all the great roads and in the villages near the monasteries, they were centres of constant life and activity. In the main hall, which was also the kitchen as well as the mess-hall, night after night would goodly companies assemble around the fire in the great chimneys. not such chimneys as we see now-adays, but big enough to roast a whole ox. We can easily imagine such a company as Chaucer depicts: some travelling with his servants; a carrier on his way to London; perhaps a pilgrim, or a medicant friar, or a light-fingered gentleman of the road; all mingling good-naturedly, noble and peasants, holy man and rogue, singing or listening to some marvelous story, or growing merry over their cider or good old English ale. Perhaps the friar knows how to mix some stronger concoction, or the village musician has brought his instrument, and the evening closes with a scene of uproarious gaiety. From such pictures as this the mind turns but unwillingly to the want, distress and suffering which marked the real inner life of the masses.

London in Chaucer's time was fast becoming what, towards the close of the Feudal days all such towns eventually became, the centre of the social, commercial and political life of the kingdom. This was one of the causes which led to the final destruction of the rude peasant mode of life, and the spread of something like a higher state of culture and refinement. Of the population of London we can form some idea, when we consider that in 1349, at the time of the great pestilence, one hundred thousand persons were estimated to have died and been buried within the city walls. Just what part of the population this was it would perhaps be difficult to say, some writers placing it at one-fourth, and others at as much as one-half of the whole.

The chief article of commerce was wool, althoughother commodities were exchanged with the Germanic traders, who imported metals, silks and wines. The decks and wharves upon the Thames were, even then, perhaps, the busiest parts of the city.

As far back as 1330, we find the foundations already laid of those labor organizations and unions which have since become such powerful factors in the industrial and commercial life of the English laboring classes. These Guilds, as they were called, were associations of merchants and tradesmen, for their mutual protection, and the improvement of trade. In some measure they served as fixers of social status. The merchant guilds were the most powerful and were able to accomplish much in the way of dictating legislation and governing

wages. In the country, the "Frith Guild," or peace-clubs, were established mainly for the purpose of securing harmonious co-operation among the farming classes and protection against the tyrannical encroachments of the lords.

While Agriculture was at the lowest ebb, and as a science wholy unknown, the implements being rude and inefficient, and the subjects of the care of the soil, the rotation of the crops and the best methods of irrigation and fertilization but little understood, still along the great military roads and in the suburbs of the larger towns, horticulture and truck farming received considerable attention. Every house of the better sort had its flower and vegetable garden, while the monasteries were noted for their herbaries, where all the kinds of medicinal plants then known were carefully cultivated. Indeed, whatever Agriculture gained in this century was due to the monks, who not only cultivated their own lands but gave the benefit of their experience to the poorer classes of land holders.

But little was accomplised towards the advancement of learning during the first part of the fourteenth century The lower orders of the society were, of course, totally ignorant. But the incapacity to read and write was not confined to them; the nobles themselves were to a great extent in the same condition. The monks were the only class who could lay claim to any considerable learning. There were no books but those transcribed in the monasteries which were too costly for general use. What there was of literature was mostly written in Latin or French. Indeed, until the rise of the Commons, under Edward I, French has been the language in universal use, at court and among the gentry: the children of the nobility were taught French before their mother tongue. There were a few literary productions in Saxon or English: the best of these, the Saxon Chronicles, or annual records, were kept by certain of the religious houses. In poetry, with the exception of Langland's "Piers Ploughman," there was no work at all of any importance. The first step in the formation of a national literature had been made, however, toward the close of the reign of Edward II. Translations from the French and Latin were being made and read, and the English language was being substituted for French at court.

At this time, also, the extention of commerce by the rapid growth of the woolen manufactures, and the development of agriculture by the improved condition of the tenant farmers, give evidence of a higher spirit of national activity than England had ever witnessed, a spirit, which, while it declined as rapidly as it had arisen, yet left behind it the germs of better systems and better social organization. The great victories over the French at Crecy and at Poitiers and the taking of the city of Calais, coming at this time, lent a spirit of intense patriotism to the age.

It was amid such scenes as these that Geoffrey Chaucer, the "Father of English Poetry," first appears upon the stage; and all the hopes, the newly-found peace and social contentment of the period found its expression in his lines. It is as if Chaucer came merely as an instrument needed to give voice to the spirit of the times, and to place the nation's literature upon the same plane with the social institutions of whose advancement we have just spoken. In one sense of the word, Chaucer was certainly ahead of his times: that is, his powers were such, and such the force of his genius that, when he had finished his task, and laid the foundation upon which all English poetry, as, indeed, all English literature, is built there was no one immediately capable of taking it up where he had left it, no one, at least, until Spencer, nearly two centuries later. Warton has beautifully compared Chaucer to "a premature day in an English spring, after which the gloom of winter returns, and the buds and blossoms which have been called forth by a transient sunshine are nipped by frosts and scattered by storms."

(To be concluded in the April number.)

R. H. Alvey.

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